Impacts of the human pharmaceutical diclofenac in the aquatic environment

| aquatic environment |
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| Submitted by Alvine Coralie Mehinto |
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| |

Abstract

An increasing number of pharmaceuticals have been found in the aquatic environment and the issue has become a human and environmental health concern. Many pharmaceuticals are not fully degraded in wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) and are continuously released in the aquatic environment resulting in concentrations in the low $\mu g/l$ range in the receiving waters. Diclofenac is a widely used non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug (NSAID) and is persistent in the aquatic environment. This pharmaceutical has been frequently reported in wastewater effluents, surface waters, groundwaters and even drinking water. NSAIDs are known to inhibit the cyclooxygenase activity, an enzyme present in many species of the animal kingdom responsible for the synthesis of prostanoids, and chronic exposure to environmental diclofenac may have detrimental effects on metabolism of non-target organisms including microbes and fish. In this thesis, microbiology, genomics and metabolomics approaches were used to investigate the effects of diclofenac on aquatic microbes and fish.

In the first study of the thesis (chapter 3), the biodegradation of selected NSAIDs was investigated, together with their potential toxicity to aquatic microbes. Aerobic biodegradation experiments were conducted using activated sludge and wastewater effluents as microbial inocula and diclofenac, ketoprofen or naproxen as sole carbon source (1-10 mg/l) in order to isolate and identify the bacterial degraders. Changes in the bacterial populations were monitored by optical density and PCR-DGGE. The analytical techniques solid phase extraction (SPE) and ultraperformance liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (UPLC-TOF-MS) were optimised to quantify the pharmaceuticals in environmental samples. High recovery rates were obtained with 94% for diclofenac; 92% for ketoprofen and 85% for naproxen and with detection capabilities down to 3-7 ng/l. Results from the biodegradation experiments showed that ketoprofen and naproxen were eliminated at up to 99 and 55% respectively over a 40 days period. Consistently with previous studies, diclofenac showed no significant degradation. In all the enrichments, a significant decrease in the bacterial abundance was observed as a consequence of NSAIDs exposure and attempts to isolate the bacterial degrading populations were unsuccessful. Given the apparent micro-toxicity of these NSAIDs, the standardised test Microtox[®] was carried out with *Vibrio fischeri*. The EC₅₀ (15 min) estimated ranged from 13.5 mg/l + 2.3 for diclofenac to 42.1 mg/l + 3.9 for naproxen. Further toxicological tests were performed with diclofenac on bacterial strains isolated from activated sludge. Growth inhibitory effects were observed from 50-70 mg/l for Micrococcus luteus, Zoogloea ramigera and Comamonas denitrificans. Pseudomonas putida seemed more tolerant to diclofenac exposure and toxic effects were observed from 90 mg/l. These studies showed that diclofenac was the most toxic NSAID but toxicological effects in bacteria only occurred at concentrations at least 1,000 times higher than those found in the environment. However, chronic exposure to lower concentrations may cause similar interferences and affect the degradation potential of naturally occurring microbial populations.

The second study (chapter 4) investigated the biological effects of sub-chronic exposure to waterborne diclofenac (0.5, 1, 5 and 25 μ g/l) in female juvenile rainbow trout *Oncorhynchus mykiss*. After 21-day exposure, mRNA expression levels of cytochrome p450 1a1 (*cyp1a1*), cyclooxygenase (*cox*) 1 and 2, and *p53* were investigated in the liver, kidney and gills using RT-PCR and QPCR. These genes were selected as they are likely targets for diclofenac in mammals. Histopathological investigations were carried out in the small intestine, liver and kidney because

diclofenac has been reported to induce toxicity responses in these tissues. Fish bile was also analysed by SPE and UPLC-TOF-MS to evaluate the bioconcentration potential of diclofenac and look for evidences of diclofenac metabolism. Results showed a significant reduction of both cox1 and cox2 expression in the liver, gills and kidney from 1 µg diclofenac/l. In contrast diclofenac induced an increase in mRNA levels for cyplal in the liver and gills but a significant reduction of cyplal expression in the kidney from 1 µg/l. There were no clear effects of diclofenac on the mRNA levels of p53. Diclofenac exposure caused tissue damages at exposure concentrations as low as 1 ug/l. Histopathological injuries included inflammation, hyperplasia and fusion of the villi in the small intestine and tubule necrosis in the kidney. There were no obvious changes in the liver of diclofenac-exposed fish. The analysis of bile revealed a bioconcentration potential between 509 + 27 and 657 + 25. A reactive metabolite of diclofenac was also detected at the highest exposure concentration which may be responsible for the severe injuries found in those fish. Sub-chronic exposure to environmental concentrations of diclofenac altered gene expression and it is possible that long term exposure to environmental diclofenac lead to significant impacts on fish health.

In the final part of this thesis (chapters 5 and 6) effects on the metabolite composition of biofluids were analysed in diclofenac-exposed fish. This work entailed developing and validating appropriate methodologies to analyse fish bile and blood plasma. Methanol extraction and UPLC-TOF-MS were optimised to analyse the plasma metabolome but the methodologies were not suitable to detect low abundance molecules such as eicosanoids due to the interferences (ion suppression) in the samples matrix. Multivariate data analysis failed to detect the endogenous metabolites of the plasma affected by the chemical exposure. The only discriminating metabolite was found after analysis of the plasma samples from control vs. 25 µg/l treatment groups and identified as the exogenous compound diclofenac. To analyse the bile, the developed SPE methodology was carried out in order to separate the metabolites between a free steroids (fatty acids, eicosanoids, etc.) fraction and a conjugated steroids (bile salts) fraction. Due to high levels of taurocholic acid masking other metabolites in the conjugated fraction, some bile samples were hydrolysed to deconjugate these metabolites. The nonhydrolysed and hydrolysed bile fractions were analysed by UPLC-TOF-MS in positive and negative ionization. Multivariate data analysis using principal component analysis (PCA) and partial least square discriminant analysis (PLS-DA) revealed significant perturbations in the bile metabolite profile of diclofenac-exposed rainbow from the lowest exposure concentration (0.5 µg/l). Over 50 metabolites were elevated or reduced as a result of the 21-day exposure, suggesting that diclofenac affected several metabolic pathways. One metabolite was identified as a lipooxygenase product. This suggests that the inhibition of prostanoids synthesis can cause a shift in the arachidonic cascade and increase the synthesis of other eicosanoids. Most of the other discriminative metabolites remain unidentified and FT-MS analysis will be performed to obtain a structural identity. The metabolomics study further highlights the concern of environmental diclofenac in non-target organisms and the need to investigate the metabolic pathways affected.

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List of abbreviations

2D-PAGE 2-dimensional polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis

AHH aryl hydrocarbon hydroxylase

ANOVA analysis of variance

BLAST Basic Local Alignment Search Tool

BC bioconcentration

bp base pair

BPI base peak intensity
CAS chemical abstract service

cDNA complementary deoxyribonucleic acid

CE-MS capillary electrophoresis - mass spectrometry

cm centimetre

coxcyclooxygenaseCTthreshold cyclecypcytochrome P450cyp1a1cytochrome P450 1a

Da dalton

dATP deoxyadenosine triphosphate

DCF diclofenac dCTP deoxycytidine

dGTP deoxyguanosine triphosphate

DHA docosahexaenoic acid DNA deoxyribonucleic acid Dnase deoxyribonuclease

dNTPs deoxyribonucleotide triphosphates

dTTP thymidine triphosphate

 E_2 17β-estradiol

EC₅₀ 50% effect concentration

ECOSAR Ecotoxicological Structure Activity Relationship

EDC endocrine disrupting chemical

EE₂ 17α-ethinylestradiol EPA eicosapentaenoic acid

EROD ethoxyresorufin-O-deethylase

ESI electrospray ionisation

eV electron volt

FT-MS Fourrier transform - mass spectrometry

g gram

GC gas chromatography

HEPES hydroxyeicosapentaenoic acids HETES hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acids

HPLC high performance liquid chromatography

hr hour

IMS industrial methylated spirit

IS internal standard

Kg kilogram kV kilo volt l litre

LC liquid chromatography LOD limit of detection

LOEC lowest observed effect concentration

M mole per litre

M+H protonated molecule
M-H deprotonated molecule

MEC measured environmental concentration

mg milligram

MIC minimum inhibitory concentration

min minute
ml millilitre
mm millimetre

mM millimole per litre

M-MLV moloney murine leukaemia virus mRNA messenger ribonucleic acid

MS mass spectrometry
MSM minimal salts medium
MW molecular weight
m/z mass to charge ratio
n number of samples

ng nanogram nm nanometre

nM nanomole per litre

NMR nuclear magnetic resonance

NSAIDs non steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs

OD optical density

OPLS orthogonal partial least squares projection to latent structures

p statistical probability P450 cytochrome P450 p53 tumour protein 53

PAH polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon PCA principal component analysis PCB polychlorinated biphenyl PCR polymerase chain reaction

PEC predicted environmental concentration

pg picogram

PIT passive integrated transponder

PLS-DA partial least squares projection to latent structures discriminant analysis

pmol picomole

PNEC predicted no effect concentration

ppm part per million

Q² cumulative variation predicted by the PCA or PLS model

Q-PCR real-time quantitative reverse transcription PCR R² variation explained by the PCA or PLS model

RNA ribonucleic acid Rnase ribonuclease

rpl8 ribosomal protein 18 rpm rotation per minute

rRNA ribosomal ribonucleic acid

RT retention time

RT-PCR reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction

SE standard error

sec seconds

 $\begin{array}{ll} SPE & solid \ phase \ extraction \\ TIC & total \ ion \ chromatogram \\ T_M & melting \ temperature \\ \end{array}$

TOF time of flight

UPLC-MS ultraperformance-liquid chromatography - mass spectrometry

UV ultraviolet

v/v volume to volume ratio

V volt vs. versus

WWTP wastewater treatment plant

°C degree Celsius
μg microgram
μl microlitre
μm micrometre

μM micromole per litre

List of abbreviated chemicals

11-HETE ±11-hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid

CoCl₂ phosgene

CTAB cetyltrimethylammonium bromide

CuSO₄ copper (II) sulphate

 E_2 -d4-S [2,4,16,16-d4] 17β-estradiol sodium 3-sulfate

EDTA ethylenedinitrilotetraacetic acid

H₂SO₄ sulphuric acid

K₂HPO₄ potassium phosphate dibasic KH₂PO₄ potassium dihydrogen phosphate

magnesium chloride MgCl₂ magnesium sulphate MgSO₄ manganese sulphate MnSO₄ NaCl sodium chloride NaOH sodium hydroxide sodium sulphate Na_2SO_4 NH₄OH ammonium hydroxide ammonium sulphate $(NH_4)_2 SO_4$

P-d9 [2,2,4,6,6,17 α -21,21,21-d9] progesterone

 $\begin{array}{ll} PGB_2 & prostaglandin \ B2 \\ PGE_2 & prostaglandin \ E2 \\ PGJ_2 & prostaglandin \ J2 \\ TAE & Tris-acetate-EDTA \end{array}$

TRIS 2-Amino-2-hydroxymethyl-propane-1,3-diol

 TxB_2 tromboxane B_2 $ZnSO_4$ zinc sulphate